DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 225 374 FL 013 420

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TITLE The Army Method Revisited: The Historical and Theoretical Backgrounds of the Military Intensive Language Programs.
PUB DATE [83]
NOTE 24p.
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (120) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Audiolingual Methods; *Intensive Language Courses; Language Aptitude; Language Research; Motivation; Postsecondary Education; *Psycholinguistics; *Second Language Instruction; Student Attitudes; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

A program currently in use by the military that gives instruction in the so-called "sensitive" languages is based on the "Army Method" which was initiated in military language programs during World War II. Attention to the sensitive language program initiated a review of the programs, especially those conducted by the military intelligence schools and the Defense Language Institute. The Army method model established itself as an efficient way to provide accelerated language training in both military and civilian educational settings. Psycholinguistic and contrastive analysis studies led to and supported the adaptation of the method in the schools during the 1960's and the adaption of the approach that became widely known as the audio lingual method. It is claimed that the Army method was successful because of effective pedagogy and efficient organizational design, as well as its interaction with affective variables such as personality factors, aptitude, intelligence, and motivation. The intensive programs developed by the Armed Forces during World War II are reviewed in terms of these variables and in light of some research on each of them. A reintroduction of the method and its widespread use in elementary and secondary schools is advocated. (AMH)

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THE ARMY METHOD REVISITED:
The Historical and Theoretical Background of the Military Intensive Language Programs

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INTRODUCTION

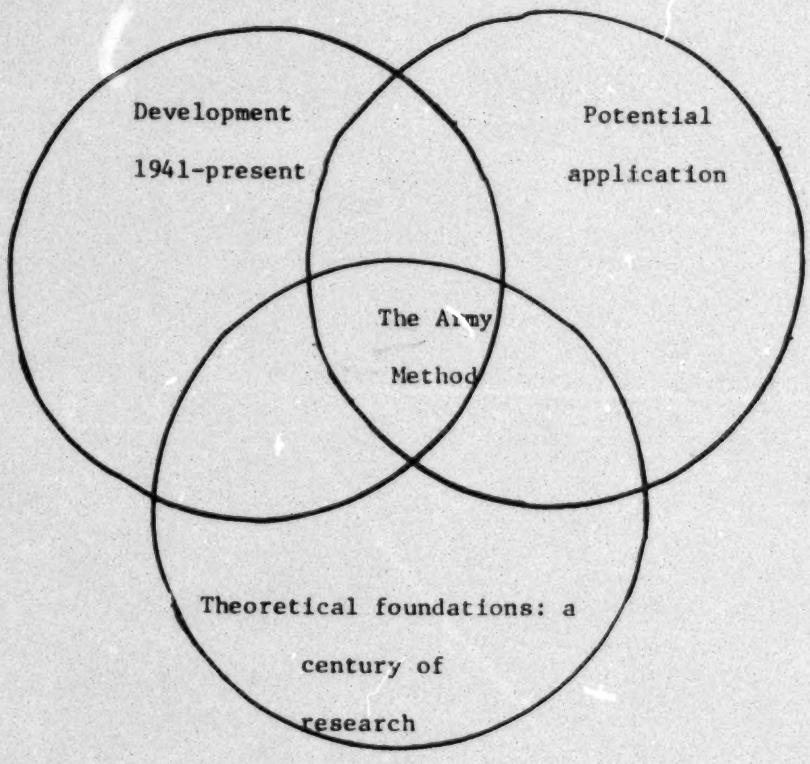
Military language programs today fall into two basic categories: general and classified. General programs are designed for military personnel and their dependents. Most of the instruction is conducted on a contract basis with commercial language schools, consulting agencies, and/or private and public universities, many with overseas extension branches. Many offer educational packages complete with syllabi, tapes, programmed or semi-programmed texts, and tests. Although the instruction offered is only as good as the agency responsible in a given locality, better funding and tougher competition for contracts guarantee satisfactory service. Admission is based on the "Open Door" philosophy in most cases, with or without credit.

Classified, or "sensitive" language programs train their own personnel and new recruits for specific, urgent and narrow goals which necessitate selective admission and intensive competitive training. The emphasis is on the "critical" (non-Western) languages; additional training in warfare, computers, and international relations may be included. Hence language specialists with some background in one of these fields are given priority. Each agency recruits via advertisements placed either in professional journals, periodicals, or on bulletin boards of major universities. Since security clearance is required, the lag time between application and admission might be as long as one year.

Clerks, who will not give their names, answer telephone queries made in response to advertisements. The caller is asked to submit his dossier to the personnel office. Names of all key officers are withheld. No details are given regarding conditions of employment/training, or any other particulars. The mood seems to be, "Don't ask any questions. Just answer ours." Perhaps this reticence to disclose information is due to the sensitivity of the programs. Perhaps it also explains the paucity of recent professional literature describing such programs, which at their inception (1940-43), enjoyed and prompted enormous publicity. The authors of this study conducted between April 18 and May 5, 1979 several telephone interviews in response to advertisements for Russian language and area specialists. The agencies contacted included the CIA, FBI, Kennedy Aerospace Center, National Security Agency and Defense Language Institute. The more fruitful discussions included those with representatives of the latter two agencies. Consequently, the description of the birth of the U.S. military language programs and the characteristics of the Army Method is based primarily on the earlier professional literature.

Contemporary "sensitive" language programs are patterned after the original Army Method which revolutionized language instruction in the United States. Although the rigor and accelerated pace of training have been subsequently modified since World War II in general language programs, classified training retains its exactness, elitism and intensity on the grounds of pressing goals, demonstrated success and supportive evidence furnished by findings in the field of psycholinguistics that

provide pedagogical and psychological bases for the Army Method as an efficient and appropriate approach for programs of high concentration.



THE ARMY METHOD -- AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

The origin of the Army Method (a coalescence of techniques developed by descriptive linguists and pioneer language teachers), can perhaps be traced to one Gottlieb Heness, a German scholar who taught in New Haven, Connecticut, between 1841 and 1887. In his didactic work, Der Leitfaden, he introduced the oral approach to language acquisition and proposed a hierarchy of language skills to be taught (E.A. Meras, A Language Teacher's Guide, 1962, p. 36).

The grammar/translation approach to language teaching, which had predominated in the Western world for several centuries, was slowly yielding place to a new approach, summarized by Childers and Meras as follows:

1. Language is made up of sounds, not letters; therefore, speaking should be the first aim. The training of the ear and tongue should precede that of the eye.
2. Connected discourse -- not isolated words -- should be used . . . the expressions should be full of meaning.
3. Language should be learned in a natural way as a child learns its native language. The grammar-translation method should be discarded.
4. Students should learn grammar inductively. (as quoted in J.W. Childers, Foreign Language Teaching, 1964, pp. 32-34, and Meras, pp. 42-44).

American involvement in world wars, and the expanding contact with foreign governments focused attention on the necessity of developing a more efficient methodology of language instruction. Americans needed to

learn foreign languages, and to learn them rapidly. Thus the stage was set for the advent of what was to become known as the Army Method, which revolutionized language instruction on all levels, and which became the forerunner of contemporary pedagogical models.

The catalytic agent directly responsible for blending the various methodologies into actual teaching programs was the American Council of Learned Societies. In 1942, the Council, supported by Rockefeller monies, set up intensive language training programs in eighteen universities. These programs had incorporated, together with the contributions of earlier scholars, the findings of notable American anthropologists, Franz Boas and Edward Sapir, who, working with North American Indians, put forth the concept that spoken languages constituted "primary communicative bands." The Council's researchers also incorporated the theoretical premises laid out by Leonard Bloomfield (1933), Charles Fries (1942), and other American linguists, who postulated that systematic descriptive analysis of a language's phonological system will yield a better understanding of its morphological and syntactical patterning. Thus descriptive analysis and intensive exposure to analogous language patterns became the foundation for the most salient element characterizing the Army Method: the pattern drill. Grammar was to be taught orally; the long-standing American tradition of formalized grammar/translation study was rejected as inefficient language pedagogy.

Several military language schools opened during World War II. The Navy Japanese Language School, which opened its doors on October 1, 1941 at Harvard and at the University of California, offered intensive, eighteen-hour per week programs designed to achieve fluency in Japanese

within a twelve-month period. The school's aim was intelligence work. The target language was used exclusively from the third week onward. Mimicry and memorization (which later became known as the Mim-Mem Method), took precedence over the culturo/historical aspects emphasized in traditional language programs. The school was later renamed the Navy Oriental Language School. Additional Navy programs were established at Columbia University (1942) and at Princeton (1944), with a total enrollment of 1,412 men. In 1946, all Navy schools were transferred to Washington, D.C. (R.J. Matthew, Language and Area Studies in the Armed Services: Their Future Significance, 1947, pp. 14-28).

The United States Army-Air Force conversation program was begun in 1941 under the auspices of the Works Projects Administration while the InterAmerican Training Center was sponsored by the Council of Learned Societies. Both programs stressed the training of Spanish and Portuguese. (Childers, pp. 43-44).

The United States Army set up a Military Intelligence Language School in San Francisco on November 1, 1941. Its aim was to train interpreters of Japanese. In 1942, another school was set up at the University of Michigan. In April of 1943, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) and its Foreign Area and Language Study was inaugurated with emphasis on French, German, Italian, Japanese, Malay, and Melanesian Pidgin. (Ibid., p. 44).

Another school, the Defense Language Institute, was founded in 1941 by the U.S. Army in Monterrey, California to train its men in Japanese. By 1965, the Institute was operating five sub-branches around the country, and "Lingo Tech" of Monterrey, as it was nicknamed by its students,

graduated 1,500 military personnel over a one-year period. The curriculum was expanded to twenty-seven languages and thirty-three dialects. More than 2,500 students per year participated in the Institute's programs, each of forty-eight weeks duration, with six hours of instruction per day, augmented by three hours of homework, six days per week. A twelve-week "quicky" program, characterized by similar rigor, was also offered to personnel who either required less extensive language knowledge or were needed more urgently in the war zone. ("Lingo Tech," Time, July 15, 1965, pp. 55-56).

The students met with their instructors in groups of twelve. Each student had a personal tape recorder. Closed-circuit television programs complemented class instruction. Facsimile banks, stores, post offices and other simulated locations were created to train students in appropriate culture/linguistic responses to given stimuli. Mock warfare drills, with students passing telecommunications in a foreign language, were monitored by instructors for post-analysis. In short, the mission of the school was communication as well as the ability to function in a foreign environment. Literature and traditional civilization courses were replaced by pragmatic drills in the language itself. Fluency (and even a knowledge of some dialects) was the main goal of the Army Method (Ibid., p. 56).

In 1943, the Civil Affairs Training School (CATS) was opened in Charlottesville, Virginia, to train top-echelon civilian and selected military personnel. Subsequently, the program branched out to ten universities. The trainees who came from sophisticated educational and professional backgrounds studied, in addition to language, economics,

geography, political organizations, military science, and other pertinent subjects integrated into area studies for which special materials had to be developed. According to Charles S. Hyneman, the teaching faculty who participated in the program demonstrated great imagination in compiling cross-disciplinary texts, and displayed a capacity for efficient management and an outstanding spirit of cooperation. ("History of the Wartime Area and Language Courses," Bulletin of The American Association of University Professors 31: 434-447, September 1945)

The ability of the military to persuade university professors involved in the program to uproot themselves from their own individual niches and embark on ego-supressing inter-disciplinary teaching might perhaps be considered the greatest achievement in the history of foreign language teaching.

This spirit of cooperation on the part of the military is also lauded by Frank M. Grittner (1969) who points out that their willingness to accept and apply a theory of linguistic analysis and language teaching pedagogy that had lain dormant for several decades deserves a great deal of merit (Foreign Language Teaching, p. 37).

Like a "Sleeping Beauty," the Army Method came to life after a protracted cataleptic slumber, reanimated by an enthusiastic and unprecedented cooperation of two opposite camps: academia and the military, who responded to the nation's desperate call for immediate help. As in any new venture, the Army Method was implemented on a trial-and-error basis, but the model succeeded in establishing itself as a respectable and highly efficient approach to accelerated language training.

THE ARMY METHOD -- LEARNING VARIABLES

The publicity received by the military language training centers was matched by that of civilian language programs that bloomed in the United States in the late 50's and 60's, spurred by the National Defense Education Act of 1958. The Army Method was subsequently referred to as the Mim-Mem, Aural-Oral, Audio-Lingual, or New Key approach, the latter most likely inspired by Susanne K. Langer's work (1942) in which she explores the origin of mankind and the birth of language.

After World War II, prominent linguists continued to subscribe to the theory of descriptive contrastive analysis, the very foundation of the pattern drill approach utilized in the Army Method. In 1957, Robert Lado reaffirmed that areas of learning difficulty can indeed be predicted by identifying differences between target and native tongues, and that the problem areas should then be stressed in drills.

Although this position has been attacked occasionally (Hamp, 1968; Gradman, 1971) by those linguists who lament the prominence given to contrastive studies at the expense of other factors, contrastive analysis still plays an important role in contemporary pedagogy, reinforced by a wealth of professional literature that lends credence to its methodological superiority.

One of the proponents of descriptive contrastive studies, Leon A. Jakobovits (1969) further refined the concept by proposing a model for transfer theory according to which structurally similar languages called for drills that make use of the student's native patterns. Conversely, dissimilar languages were to be taught with materials that ignored native phonological and grammatical structures. The transfer model is most

effective on the elementary level since the student, as he progresses, gradually loses his dependence on his mother tongue ("Second Language Learning and Transfer Theory: A Theoretical Assessment," Language Learning, 19:60).

The proven success of intensive language programs sponsored by the U.S. Armed Forces can be attributed in part to painstaking investigation and innovative application of the transfer principle years before it was formalized by Javobovitz and others.

Affective Variables

In addition to effective pedagogy and efficient organizational design, successful language acquisition depends on intrinsic variables which originate with the student himself. Various factors have been suggested as relevent to success, e.g., imitation, introversion/extroversion (Brown 1973), emotional stability, assertiveness, desire to please, and empathy (Guiora et al., 1972).

Another model created by Jakobovits (1970) assigned value points to each of four categories of variables selected on the basis of findings by American and Canadian researchers. He proposed the following distribution of factors relevent to success in second language learning:

aptitude.....33%

intelligence.....20%

motivation.....33%

other variables.....14% (as quoted in E.W. Stevick, "Language Instruction Must Do an About-Face," The Modern Language Journal 58, No. 8: 379, December 1974).

The Army Method relied heavily on aptitude and motivation (66%), with intelligence and other factors playing only a secondary role (36%). Thus, right from the beginning, military language programs took into account the two most productive variables, thereby assuring a better outcome in their venture. The Navy Japanese Language School for example initially admitted only those who came from Japanese backgrounds on the assumption that their aptitude for Japanese was greater than that of others. (Matthew, p. 18).

Previous training in languages and/or a high verbal aptitude were other factors which weighed heavily in favor of an applicant being admitted to early military language programs. A similar selection process is in effect today. College language majors are often invited to apply even though their specializations may not necessarily be in the area for which they are being recruited, the rationale being that a second foreign language is learned with greater ease (according to recent telephone interviews with several governmental agencies - see introduction).

The effect of the student's aptitude and the attitude on language learning and retention has been approached from yet another angle. S.D. Krashen (1976) suggests the following dichotomy:

aptitude.....is most important for <u>conscious</u> learning.

attitude.....has the greatest effect on <u>unconscious</u> assimilation ("Formal and Informal Linguistic Environments in Language Acquisition and Language Learning," <u>TESOL Quarterly</u> 10: 159).

The Army Method utilizes <u>both</u> conscious and unconscious approaches to language teaching -- aptitude and attitude account for 66% (Jakobovits)

in assuring success. One could surmise then that the Army Method must be superior to the traditional approach which relies mostly on conscious formalized study of grammar.

Intelligence

Several different concepts have been put forth to define another affective variable pertinent to language learning -- intelligence. Diane W. Birckbichler and A.C. Omaggio (1978), for example, classify intellectual operations into distinct categories. Although the purpose of their taxonomy is to aid in individualized instruction -- quite a different goal from the one pursued by the Army Method -- the authors identify those intellectual characteristics which are not conducive to language learning. They predict mistakes on the basis of each category, and, perhaps unintentionally, point out potential "poor risk" language students. The categories include the following classes:

Poor memory.....the student lacks the power of retention.

Lack of flexibility....hesitates due to his search for the right answer; cannot accept the idea of alternatives.

Too impulsive.....too fast, thus often inaccurate.

Field dependent.....cannot separate relevant from irrelevant information.

Broad categorizer.....overgeneralizes, makes up his own rules.

Narrow categorizer.....needs a rule for every example; does not capitalize on the principle of analogy.

Low tolerance to

ambiguity.....gives up too quickly ("Diagnosing and Responding to Individual Learner Needs," The Modern Language Journal 62: 336).

The Army Method selection process screens out nearly all "poor risk" applicants at the onset of training. Although the original admissions criteria lacked theoretical foundations, and relied heavily on subjective evaluations of peers and superiors, this "tough" approach, common to military training, helped to produce high caliber language graduates. Less importance, however, was assigned by the Army Method to the individual and more to the organization. This aspect reveals the wide goal divergency between language programs in the military sector (that still subscribe to the Army Method) and those in the public sector where, as evidenced in such research as Birckbichler and Omaggio's taxonomy, the concern is for individuals within the whole population rather than for elite groups.

Motivation

Whereas there is no doubt that personal motivation plays as important role in foreign language acquisition, what motivation is, remains to be determined. Many equate motivation with extrinsic rewards, e.g., graduate studies, travel appreciation, glamorous careers and so forth. The Army Method of the earlier era stressed patriotism.

Psychologists offer tentative terminology to match ever changing concepts. For instance, Wallace E. Lambert (1956) taxonomized motivation in foreign language learning into:

instrumental.....resting on factors found outside the language itself, e.g., promotion.

integrative.....generated by a personal interest in the language itself and the country of its origin.

It is the integrative motivation, maintains Lambert, that makes long-range language learning and retention more effective ("Developmental Aspects of Second Language Acquisition," Journal of Social Psychology 43: 85).

The Army Method seems to lean heavily on the instrumental, rather than integrative motivation. However, since the student is usually trained to use the language as soon as he completes training, the retention problem is nullified.

D.P.L. Dry (1977) also suggests that motivation is two-dimentional:

external.....based on outside rewards.

internal.....an inner drive based on present and projected self-image ("Whose motivation and to What End?" English Language Teacher Journal 31, No 3: 195).

Since the self-image of a military trainee depends to a great extent on peer appraisal, he is likely to strive for success to impress his peers, thus retaining the sense of group belonging.

CONCLUSION

The Army Method achieved the purpose for which it was designed, and it continues to be used by the Armed Forces today. Some of its characteristics, notably its non-democratic admissions procedure, program rigidity and utilitarian rather than humanistic philosophical stance have drawn sharp criticism. Its grouping together of a "gifted elite" strikes a somber chord within a large contingent of American educators. Stanley J. Urevick (1974), for example, feels heterogeneous grouping is vital to American education and must be preserved, even expanded (In Critical Issues in Educational Psychology, D.Gall and B.A. Ward, 1974,pp.460-464).

On the other side of the grouping controversy is a growing number of educators who applaud the concept of ability grouping and would likely place their seal of approval on the Army Method. For instance, Zak Bayuk (1972) points out that governance of society by intellectual elites is an inexorable, unchangeable phenomenon. Heterogeneous grouping, Bayuk maintains, assails both common sense logic and the meritocratic ethos deeply rooted in the American people* ("The Case for Elitism," The Clearing House 46: 506-7).

In 1973, Richard T. Thompson predicted that the Army Method would be applied on a national scale to the teaching of modern European languages in the United States. Entering the decade of the 80's, there is little evidence of prescience in Thompson's forecast. And, it is a pity. The Army Method has proven itself, while, for the most part, our secondary schools and colleges still are unable to produce students who are truly

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*This hits home when we consider how universities, those bastions of humanitarian enlightenment, evaluate the community of scholars.

fluent in foreign languages. The eclecticism which marked the development and refinement of the Army Method is missing in the public sector. A great deal of verbage has been written related to the superiority of various "audio-lingual" approaches, yet, but for isolated pockets of enlightenment, words have brought on little improvement. In the opinion of these authors, the Army Method in its original form remains unsurpassed by any other methodology.

THE ARMY METHOD

ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN

- accelerated pace
- narrow goals
- selective admission
- continuous screening
- pragmatic course content
- rigid curriculum
- training for immediate use

PEDAGOGY

- descriptive analysis as its base
- pattern drills with native instructors
- supervision by language specialists
- continuous monitoring
- gadget-oriented instruction
- fluent communication is the aim

LEARNING VARIABLES

- aptitude
- motivation
- intelligence
- other variables
- elitism
- peer pressure

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